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1 **The diagnostic accuracy of 1.5T magnetic resonance imaging for detecting root avulsions**
2 **in traumatic adult brachial plexus injuries**

3

4

5 **Abstract**

6

7 Identification of root avulsions is of critical importance in traumatic brachial plexus injuries because
8 it alters the reconstruction and prognosis. Preoperative magnetic resonance imaging is gaining
9 popularity but there is limited and conflicting data on its diagnostic accuracy for root avulsion. This
10 cohort study describes consecutive patients requiring brachial plexus exploration following trauma
11 between 2008 and 2016. The index test was magnetic resonance imaging at 1.5 Tesla and the
12 reference test was operative exploration of the supraclavicular plexus. Complete data from 29 males
13 was available. The diagnostic accuracy of MRI for root avulsion(s) of C5-T1 was 79%. The diagnostic
14 accuracy of a pseudomeningocele as a surrogate marker of root avulsion(s) of C5-T1 was 68%.
15 We conclude that pseudomeningoceles were not a reliable sign of root avulsion and MRI has modest
16 diagnostic accuracy for root avulsions in the context of adult traumatic brachial plexus injuries.

17

18 **Level of Evidence: III**

19

20 **Introduction**

21 Traumatic brachial plexus injuries affect up to 1% of adults involved in road traffic collisions who are
22 triaged in regional trauma centres (Midha, 1997). Optimal management relies upon differentiating
23 pre-ganglionic and post-ganglionic injuries because the reconstruction and prognosis is different.
24 Post-ganglionic nerve injuries (ruptures or attenuations) have a more favourable prognosis because
25 the damaged nerve may be repaired or grafted if treated in a timely fashion. Conversely, pre-
26 ganglionic nerve injuries (root avulsions) warrant nerve transfers from intra-plexal or extra-plexal
27 donors, as re-implantation remains of uncertain value (Eggers et al., 2016; Fournier et al., 2005).
28 Therefore, the identification of root avulsion(s) is critical as it alters the operative plan and prognosis.

29
30 Currently, operative exploration of the supraclavicular brachial plexus is the most reliable method of
31 identifying root avulsion(s). As the exploratory surgery has an uncertain outcome, pre-operative
32 imaging and neurophysiological tests (O'Shea et al., 2011) are obtained to help the surgeons and
33 patients to better prepare for the possibility of nerve repairs, grafting, or transfers and rehabilitation.
34 Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is gaining popularity owing to its multi-planar capabilities and
35 unparalleled soft-tissue contrast (Vargas et al., 2010). However, few studies have specifically
36 considered the diagnostic accuracy of MRI for root avulsions (Hayashi et al., 1998; Yoshikawa et al.,
37 2006). The overall reported accuracy of MRI for traumatic root avulsion ranges from 52-88% with
38 technical issues limiting improvements. Some studies investigating the accuracy of MRI for root
39 avulsion use a reference standard of clinical follow up, ie. reanimation of the limb (Tagliafico et al.,
40 2012) or electrophysiological studies (Tsai et al., 2006; Yoshikawa et al., 2006) as surrogate markers
41 of root avulsion. A few studies report operative exploration as the reference standard (Penkert et al.,
42 1999; Hems et al., 1999; Disawal and Taori, 2012; Doi et al., 2002; Carvalho et al., 1997; Yang et
43 al., 2013; Chanlalit et al., 2005; Nakamura et al., 1997; Qin et al., 2016), but most have important
44 methodological flaws, used outdated MRI technologies or pulse sequences which are now obsolete
45 and fail to report their data in accordance with the Standards for Reporting Diagnostic accuracy
46 studies (STARD, Smidt et al., 2005; Bossuyt et al., 2015), Therefore, there is a lack of reliable data
47 on the diagnostic accuracy of MRI for root avulsion in adult brachial plexus injuries.

48

49 We present a study on the diagnostic accuracy of MRI in traumatic adult brachial plexus injury. Our
50 hypothesis was that 1.5T MRI of the brachial plexus (the index test) could not correctly classify
51 patients with traumatic root avulsions, as compared with the reference standard of operative
52 exploration.

53 **Methods**

54 This report was written in accordance with the STARD guidance (Smidt et al., 2005; Bossuyt et al.,
55 2015) and Cochrane Handbook for Reviews of Diagnostic Test Accuracy (The Cochrane
56 Collaboration, 2016).

57

58 **Design**

59 This retrospective cohort study evaluated the diagnostic accuracy of MRI at 1.5 Tesla (T) performed
60 on a consecutive series of adult males who sustained non-penetrating traumatic brachial plexus
61 injuries. Participants were managed in the host institution between January 2008 and July 2016.

62

63 **Eligibility Criteria**

64 Our institution is a specialist centre for adult and paediatric brachial plexus pathology, both
65 congenital and acquired. Potential cases were identified from operative logbooks (electronic and
66 paper based) containing keywords pertaining to brachial plexus exploration. We included
67 consecutive adults who underwent exploration of the supraclavicular brachial plexus during the study
68 period. Exclusion criteria are shown in Figure 1.

69

70 **Outcomes**

71 The primary outcome was the diagnostic accuracy of MRI for detecting a root avulsion of the brachial
72 plexus as compared to the reference standard of operative exploration. Secondly, we sought to
73 investigate the accuracy of pseudomeningoceles visualised on MRI as a surrogate marker of root
74 avulsion, as compared to the reference standard.

75

76 **Prior tests**

77 As part of their clinical care in the context of major trauma, all patients were routinely examined and
78 imaged by plain radiography and contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CT). These images
79 were typically reported by two radiologists (a trainee and consultant) and findings were coded in
80 binary. Vascular injury was defined by any flow abnormality or extravasation affecting the subclavian

81 or axillary vessels. Hemicord oedema/haemorrhage was defined by asymmetrical high signal
82 intensity at multiple levels of the hemicord on fluid weighted images.

83

84 Index Test

85 The index test was MRI of the brachial plexus. Clinically, this test is used to attempt to diagnose the
86 type of nerve injury. All participants were scanned using a MRI scanner (Siemens Avanto 1.5T
87 system, Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany) acquiring sagittal T1-weighted (280mm FOV,
88 3mm slice thickness, TR 6020, TE 102 and 384 matrix) and T2-weighted turbo-spin echo (280mm
89 FOV sequences, 3mm slice thickness, TR 500, TE 9.7 and matrix 384), axial T2 turbo-spin echo
90 (TSE; 220mm FOV sequences, 3mm slice thickness, TR 4180, TE 104 and matrix 320), coronal
91 short-tau inversion recovery (STIR; 3mm slice thickness, 5960 TR, 83 TE and 320 matrix) and
92 constructive interference steady state (CISS; 0.7mm slice thickness, 11.48 TR, 5.74 TE and 320
93 matrix) sequences. No intravenous contrast was used. All scans were performed pre-operatively and
94 so the results of the reference standard were not known to the assessor. All images were reviewed
95 at the time of imaging by one experienced musculoskeletal radiologist (JJR, a highly experienced
96 Consultant Radiologist) with access to examination findings and prior test results; reports were not
97 revised for this research. The MR image was considered “positive” for root avulsion when there was
98 a lack of continuity or absence of the nerve root between the spinal cord and the exit foramen, or if
99 there was abnormal contour of the nerve root with a more horizontal orientation, suggesting that the
100 avulsed nerve root was lying caudal to the level of the normal attachment. A pseudomeningocele
101 was defined by expansion of the space containing the nerve root and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) within
102 the foramen, associated with an abnormal contour of the dura within the spinal canal, which is the
103 site where dural leaks occur. Occasionally, the leak of CSF extended beyond the foramen into a
104 cystic collection lying in the paraspinal soft tissues and this too was defined as a
105 pseudomeningocele.

106

107 Reference Standard

108 The reference standard for a diagnosing root avulsion of the brachial plexus was operative
109 exploration. In our institution, exploratory surgery is preferentially performed acutely for brachial
110 plexus injuries in the context of major trauma. We defined avulsion as a binary outcome with implicit
111 threshold. In early exploration, if the spinal foramina was empty (ie. there was no identifiable nerve)
112 then avulsion was diagnosed; equally, if there was a neural structure in the foramen but it was easily
113 pulled away then a concealed avulsion was diagnosed. If exploration was delayed, the avulsion was
114 defined by a combination of: the absence of the nerve roots in the foramina; relaxation, attenuation
115 and displacement of the scarred proximal nerve trunks or dorsal root ganglion; no identifiable nerve
116 fascicles on exploration of the nerve root; empty proximal nerve sheaths; and the absence of any
117 muscle activity on electrical stimulation of the nerve. Somatosensory Evoked Potentials were not
118 used. The C4 to T1 roots were explored in all participants.

119

120 Analysis

121 Continuous metrics are skewed so presented as medians with interquartile ranges (IQR) and
122 compared with rank-based methods. Categorical variables are presented as frequencies (with
123 percentages) and compared with Chi Square or Fisher's Exact test as appropriate. To correlate time
124 to scan with the index and reference tests, Spearman's Rho are reported. The agreement between
125 pseudomeningocoele and avulsion counts on MRI, compared to avulsion counts at exploration are
126 represented by Cohen's kappa (k, whereby perfect agreement is k=1 and no agreement is k=0). To
127 investigate the association between other injuries (as binary explanatory variables) and the presence
128 of any avulsion at operation, binary logistic regression models were developed in an iterative
129 manner, with the final reported model in entry mode. As per the Transparent reporting of a
130 multivariable prediction model for individual prognosis or diagnosis statement (Collins et al., 2015),
131 models were internally validated using lossless non-parametric bootstrapping with 1000 iterations
132 (resampling with replacement) as there are no available datasets for external validation. Overall
133 diagnostic accuracy was defined as (TP+TN/total). Significance was set at $p < 0.05$. Confidence
134 intervals (CI) were generated to the 95% level.

135

136 **Results**

137 There were 47 potential participants identified from hospital records of whom 17 were excluded
138 because case notes were missing (n=1), cases were erroneous coded (n=2), there were no
139 preoperative MR images (n=8) or the MR images acquired were unintelligible owing to movement
140 artefact (n=2) or acquired using a pulse sequence which does not visualise the plexus (n=7).
141 Therefore, data from 29 males involved in high energy trauma were available for analysis.

142
143 The mechanism of injury included: motorcycle collisions with vehicles (n=22), pedestrians hit by
144 motor vehicles (n=2), bicyclists hit by motor vehicles (n=2), a fall from substantial height (n=2) and
145 an industrial traction injury (Table 1). Horner's syndrome was associated with a T1 root avulsion
146 (sensitivity 67% and specificity 90%, p=0.004), with exploration as the reference standard.

147
148 We explored timings to MRI and surgery for patients treated exclusively within our institution versus
149 those initially managed elsewhere and later referred; there was no significant difference in the
150 median time from injury to MRI (16 vs. 97 days, p=0.104) or injury to surgery (53 vs. 157 days,
151 p=0.062).

152
153 Overall, the diagnostic accuracy of MRI for root avulsion(s) of C5-T1 was 79% (Table 2), which
154 means that MRI incorrectly classified the injury in approximately one out of four cases. Importantly,
155 the negative predictive value is approximately 81% which means that for every five cases the MRI
156 reports no avulsion, there will be one occult root avulsion. In nine cases (31%), the MRI findings
157 were in perfect agreement with the operative findings.

158
159 Table 3 details the diagnostic test accuracy of a pseudomeningocele as a surrogate marker for root
160 avulsion. The overall diagnostic accuracy for C5-T1 was 68% which means that for one in three
161 cases, MRI incorrectly classified root avulsion based on the presence of a pseudomeningocele.
162 Again, in nine cases the MRI findings of pseudomeningoceles agreed with the operative findings of
163 avulsion exactly.

164

165 Time from injury to scanning was not associated with the accuracy of root avulsion identification
166 (Figure 1). There was moderate agreement between the frequency of avulsions suspected on MRI
167 and avulsions diagnosed at operation ($k=0.4$, $p<0.001$). Data suggests that the longer the time from
168 injury to MRI, the weaker the association between pseudomeningoceles and true root avulsion,
169 albeit not statistically significant (Figure 2). There was moderate agreement between the frequency
170 of suspected avulsions and pseudomeningoceles ($k=0.3$, $p=0.001$) and no agreement between the
171 presence of a pseudomeningocele and a true root avulsion ($k=0.3$, $p=0.09$), which suggests that
172 pseudomeningoceles are not a good surrogate radiological marker of root avulsion.

173

174 Every case sustained a fracture, namely of the ribs ($n=18$), sternum ($n=2$), base of skull ($n=3$),
175 cervical spine ($n=11$), thoracic spine ($n=8$) and lumbar spine ($n=3$) and the ipsilateral clavicle ($n=6$),
176 1st rib ($n=9$), scapula ($n=11$) and humerus ($n=5$). Three males had radiologically paralysed
177 hemidiaphragms. Six participants sustained ipsilateral vascular injuries which were all intimal tears
178 resulting in acute thrombosis. There were 11 haemopneumothoraces.

179

180 The only significant predictor of a root avulsion was the suspicion of any root avulsions on MRI (OR
181 4.1 [95% CI 3.2, 1089], $p=0.006$). When bootstrapped, the suspicion of any root avulsions on the
182 MRI remained a strong predictor of root avulsion (OR 4.1 [95% CI 1.7, 60], $p=0.007$) and the
183 presence of an ipsilateral vascular injury (OR 2.7 [95% CI 0.3, 40], $p=0.003$) and clavicle fracture
184 (OR 2.1 [95% CI 1.7, 38], $p=0.048$) emerged as further potential predictors.

185

186 Comparing those with perfect MRI and surgical agreement vs. others, there was no difference in the
187 median time from injury to MRI (23 vs. 24 days, $p=0.9$) or surgery (48 vs 65 days, $p=0.2$)

188

189 **Discussion**

190 Our data shows that cross sectional imaging by MRI at 1.5T using the described pulse sequence
191 and when interpreted by an expert, confers a modest diagnostic test accuracy for root avulsion
192 compared to operative findings in the context of adult traumatic brachial plexus injuries. Accuracy
193 was not affected by the time between injury and scanning. Conversely, we suggest that the presence
194 of a pseudomeningocele is not a reliable surrogate marker of root avulsion in either a positive or
195 negative predictive fashion.

196

197 MRI is believed to be the best indicator of brachial plexus pathology (Vargas et al., 2010) and in the
198 context of trauma, more informative than electrophysiological studies (O'Shea et al., 2011),
199 ultrasonography (Zhu et al., 2014; Mallouhi and Meirer, 2003; Lapegue et al., 2014) and
200 intraoperative somatosensory-evoked potentials (Sureka et al., 2009). Many historical articles report
201 the findings of MRI without a reference standard (Bayaroğullari et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Ning
202 et al., 2011; Takahara et al., 2008; Qiu et al., 2014; 2008; Zhang et al., 2008) or use a reference
203 such as CT myelography. A few studies have reported MRI findings against the best available
204 reference standard of operative exploration (Penkert et al., 1999; Hems et al., 1999; Disawal and
205 Taori, 2012; Doi et al., 2002; Carvalho et al., 1997; Yang et al., 2013; Chanlalit et al., 2005;
206 Nakamura et al., 1997; Qin et al., 2016). This is important, because if another reference test is
207 chosen (eg. CT) then the index test can only ever be shown to be as good as the reference. Further,
208 if the index test is better than that chosen reference standard, then this cannot be shown. Our finding
209 of an overall diagnostic accuracy of 79% is consistent with the overall accuracy of 52-88% reported
210 in previous studies comparing MRI to operative exploration. There are numerous potential reasons
211 for differences in accuracy, such as, technical limitations of MRI, improved image fidelity with
212 improved scanner technology, different methods of surgical exploration, varying definitions of
213 avulsion, methods of sample selection, and chance. These factors might be explored further with a
214 systematic review.

215

216 Pseudomeningoceles are described as a surrogate marker of root avulsion because the rupture of
217 the dura mater is believed to correspond to a rupture of the nerve root. This is not always the case
218 (Aralasmak et al., 2010; Vvan Es and Bollen, 2010; Yoshikawa et al., 2006; Sureka et al., 2009; Doi
219 et al., 2002) with pseudomeningoceles reported to occur without root avulsion in less than 15% of
220 cases. However, we detected a pseudomeningocele in 8% of intact roots, with the agreement
221 varying depending on the root concerned. Further, the literature suggests that 20% of root avulsions
222 have no appreciable pseudomeningocele on MRI. No pseudomeningocele was observed in 23%
223 of root avulsions. Our findings may be different to historical figures because better scanners provide
224 a greater ability to detect pathology. We suggest that pseudomeningoceles are not a reliable sign
225 of avulsion as either a positive or negative predictor.

226

227 Seven cases (15%) were excluded because scans performed elsewhere were inadequate. This is
228 unsurprising given that the proprietary brachial plexus imaging sequences in commercially available
229 MRI scanners produce poor images and therefore, substantial sequence customisation is usually
230 needed (Figure 3). We recommend that patients with brachial plexus injuries be promptly referred
231 for investigation and treatment within a specialist centre. This model would allow robust research to
232 be undertaken by experts in nerve injury and medical imaging, and enable experimentation with
233 diffusion techniques [diffusion tensor imaging tractography (Tagliafico et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2012;
234 Vargas et al., 2010)] and hyperpolarisation methods (Ross et al., 2010) which may further improve
235 the accuracy of peripheral nerve imaging.

236

237 Our study has limitations which must be considered. The sample is small and so all hypothesis tests
238 are at risk of Type 2 error. Unfortunately, the accuracy of the reference standard of surgical
239 exploration of the supraclavicular brachial plexus is not perfect. Therefore, the reported accuracy of
240 any comparison test may be less reliable and cautious interpretation is needed. Partial root injuries
241 cannot be reliably detected and delayed exploration may reduce the identification of true positives.
242 It may be impossible to morphologically differentiate a post-ganglionic rupture which is very proximal
243 from a true root avulsion. In the case of intradural avulsions, when the nerve root is not displaced

244 from the intervertebral foramen, the root may appear normal in the posterior triangle. Better accuracy
245 for the reference standard may be achieved if cervical laminectomy and exploration of the roots
246 within the spinal canal were also performed, but this is rarely justifiable. Our sample could be biased
247 because we selected (albeit consecutive) a series of operatively managed adults from the United
248 Kingdom, imaged with a specific brand and model of MRI scanner using specific pulse sequences
249 and so the inferences cannot necessarily be generalised to other situations.

250

251 In conclusion, MRI at 1.5T appears to confer a modest diagnostic test accuracy for root avulsions in
252 the context of adult traumatic brachial plexus injuries. Adults with brachial plexus injuries should be
253 promptly transferred to specialist centres to enable high-quality prospective research which may
254 improve diagnostic tests and reconstructive methods. Until the fidelity of diagnostic imaging
255 improves, we recommend that surgical exploration by an experienced surgeon remains the reference
256 standard and MRI be utilised as a supplemental investigation.

257

258

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355

356

357

358 **Tables**

359

360 Table 1. Comparison of patient demographics between two groups

Patient demographics	Patients with No root avulsions (n=10)	Patients with any root avulsion (n=19)	p-value
Median age in years at injury (IQR)	26 (28-34)	32 (26-44)	0.211
Right sided injury (%)	6 (60)	9 (47)	0.700
Median days from injury to MRI (IQR)	16 (7-41)	29 (6-163)	0.769
Median days from injury to operative exploration (IQR)	49 (11-149)	65 (40-164)	0.330

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370 Table 2. MRI diagnostic accuracy for suspected nerve root avulsions.

Location of suspected avulsion on MRI	Avulsion found at operative exploration		Test sensitivity (%)	Test specificity (%)	Positive Predictive value (%)	Negative Predictive Value (%)
	Yes	No				
At least one avulsion	Yes	17	89	80	89	80
	No	2				
C4 root	Yes	1	100	93	100	93
	No	2				
C5 root	Yes	6	67	75	67	75
	No	5				
C6 root	Yes	10	90	73	91	72
	No	5				
C7 root	Yes	9	69	81	69	81
	No	3				
C8 root	Yes	8	73	89	73	89
	No	2				
T1 root	Yes	5	71	86	71	86
	No	3				
Cumulative (per root) suspicion of root avulsion for C5-T1	Yes	38	68	85	75	81
	No	18				

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373 Table 3. MRI diagnostic accuracy for nerve root avulsions based on pseudomeningoceles.

Location of the pseudomeningocele	Avulsion found at operative exploration		Test sensitivity (%)	Test specificity (%)	Positive Predictive value (%)	Negative Predictive Value (%)
	Yes	No				
At least one detected	Yes	12 3	63	70	80	50
	No	7 7				
C4 root	Yes	1 0	100	93	100	93
	No	2 26				
C5 root	Yes	2 1	67	75	67	65
	No	9 17				
C6 root	Yes	4 1	91	72	80	54
	No	11 13				
C7 root	Yes	5 5	69	81	50	63
	No	7 12				
C8 root	Yes	6 3	73	89	67	80
	No	4 16				
T1 root	Yes	5 2	71	86	71	86
	No	3 19				
Cumulative (per root) detection of a pseudomeningocele for C5-T1	Yes	22 12	40	87	65	69
	No	34 77				

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376 **Figure Legends**

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379 **Figure 1.** A scatter plot showing the agreement between suspected avulsions on MRI and root

380 avulsions at operation with time to MRI, with linear regression co-efficient (red line) and 95%

381 confidence intervals (green lines). The maximum agreement is six counts (ie. the status of C4-T1

382 [all 6 roots] were correctly classified by MRI). No agreement is shown by zero counts (ie. all six

383 roots were incorrectly classified by MRI). This shows no evidence that time from injury to MRI is

384 correlated with the accuracy of a suspected root avulsions on MRI.

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387 **Figure 2.** A scatter plot showing the agreement between pseudomeningocoeles on MRI and root

388 avulsions at operation with time to MRI, with linear regression co-efficient (red line) and 95%

389 confidence intervals (green lines). The maximum agreement is six counts (ie. the status of C4-T1

390 [all 6 roots] were correctly classified by MRI); no agreement is shown by zero counts (ie. all six

391 roots were incorrectly classified by MRI). A negative correlation between the time from injury and

392 the agreement between pseudomeningocoeles on MRI and a root avulsion at operative exploration

393 is suggested.

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396 **Figure 3.** An axial T2-weighted image at the level of C7 showing an abnormal contour of the left

397 sided dural sac, indicating a tear and no visualised rootlets crossing the CSF space which is

398 suggestive of root avulsion.

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